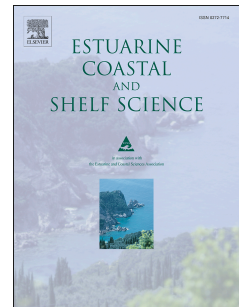


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**Geospatial modelling and map analysis allowed measuring regression of the upper limit of**  
***Posidonia oceanica* seagrass meadows under human pressure**

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### Abstract

Marine coastal ecosystems are facing structural and functional changes due to the increasing human footprint worldwide, and the assessment of their long-term changes becomes particularly challenging. Measures of change can be done by comparing the observed ecosystem status to a purposely defined reference condition. In this paper, a geospatial modelling approach based on 2D mapping and morphodynamic data was used to predict the natural position of the upper limit (i.e., the landward continuous front) of *Posidonia oceanica* seagrass meadows settled on soft bottom. This predictive model, formerly developed at the regional spatial scale, was here applied for the first time at the Mediterranean spatial scale in eight coastal areas of Spain, France, Italy, and Greece showing different coastal morphologies and hydrodynamic characteristics, and affected by a number of natural and/or human local disturbances. The model was effective in measuring the regression (i.e., seaward withdrawal) of the meadow upper limit. In all the meadows investigated the upper limit was regressed, laying deeper than the reference condition, with the proportion of regression ranging from 17.7% to 98.9%. The highest values of regression were found in Spain and in France, and were consistent with the highest levels of fragmentation detected with map analysis and of coastal pressures. This geospatial modelling approach represents an effective tool to define the reference conditions when proper pristine areas or historical data are not available, thus allowing the assessment of long-time changes experienced by seagrass ecosystems due to human impacts.

**Keywords:** seagrass, predictive modelling, reference conditions, morphodynamics, *Posidonia oceanica*, Mediterranean Sea.

## 1 Introduction

2 During the last century, the incessant urban development of coastal zones caused radical changes in  
3 marine ecosystems and a constant decline of their biodiversity (Benoit and Comeau, 2005; Shochat  
4 et al., 2006). Quantification of these long-term changes represents one of the main goals of on-  
5 going research on management and conservation of coastal marine ecosystems (Halpern et al.,  
6 2015; de Andrés and Barragán, 2016).

7 In European waters, the Marine Strategy Framework Directive (European Council, 2008) imposes  
8 to all EU Member States the maintenance (or restoration) of the “good environmental status” and  
9 the seafloor integrity of their water bodies by 2020. These objectives can be achieved once the  
10 status of ecosystems has been evaluated through the adoption of specific bioindicators, descriptors  
11 and related ecological indices (Borja et al., 2010, 2013; Personnic et al., 2014; Rastorgueff et al.,  
12 2015; Piazzini et al., 2017). Then, evaluation of changes over time requires the comparison of the  
13 current status with previous baselines (i.e., the reference conditions), which may represent the  
14 ecosystem status before heavy human impact (Duarte et al., 2008; Borja et al., 2012). Reference  
15 conditions can be retrieved using: i) historical information; ii) pristine sites (i.e., natural areas with  
16 little or no human pressures) or, alternatively, marine protected areas; and iii) predictive modelling  
17 (Borja et al., 2012, 2013; Smith, 2016).

18 Historical data are rarely available, non-homogeneous, incomplete and seldom reliable, because of  
19 the lack of standardization in the sampling methods, changes in technology and observer effects  
20 (Leriche et al., 2004; Montefalcone et al., 2013; Gatti et al., 2015). When historical data are  
21 available, they may provide precious information to understand magnitude and pattern of change in  
22 the long term evolution of marine ecosystems (Canessa et al., 2017; Gatti et al., 2017). However,  
23 they are often only descriptive and go back in the past normally for a few decades only (Bianchi and  
24 Morri, 2004), thus in periods where a shift over time in the expectation of what a healthy ecosystem  
25 looks like can be observed - shifting or sliding baselines syndrome (Pauly, 1995). It means that,

when change to a system is measured against previous available baselines that have already experienced significant alterations from the original state of the system, we might fail in defining what is really “natural” and then lose the perception of real change.

With few exceptions, pristine situations can be considered as definitively lost today (Jackson and Sala, 2001; Stachowitsch, 2003; Duarte et al., 2008), especially in coastal ecosystems that have been affected by significant impacts in the last decades, such as coral and rocky reefs and seagrass meadows (De’ath et al., 2012; Bianchi et al., 2014; Ponti et al., 2014; Montefalcone et al., 2015). Adopting marine protected areas as reference might be ineffective because protected habitats often showed the same status of unprotected ones, as observed in seagrass meadows (Montefalcone et al., 2009), infralittoral rocky reefs (Parravicini et al., 2013) and coralligenous reefs (Montefalcone et al., 2017).

Despite its practical and methodological limitations (Vacchi et al., 2014a), modelling remains in many situations the best approach with interesting potential still little explored (Parravicini et al., 2012; Vacchi et al., 2013). Predictive habitat modelling, from simple empirical models to detailed mechanistic and complex process-based approaches, have been recently developed to investigate the potential effects of physical environment on individual plants and to predict seagrass occurrence (Vacchi et al., 2010, 2013, 2014b; Detenbeck and Rego, 2015 and reference therein). Mechanistic approaches are based on a number of interactive physical parameters (e.g., wave energy, light, substrate typology, salinity, temperature) for which georeferenced data are available, and for which optima or thresholds for seagrass growth and survival can be obtained from the literature (Downie et al., 2013). More complex models also incorporated emergent properties influencing the growth, the loss rates, and the interactions between seagrass and their environment (Wortman et al., 1997; Fonseca et al., 2004; Kendrick et al., 2005).

The Mediterranean Sea is strongly affected by local and global impacts and experienced heavy alterations during the last two centuries (Bianchi et al., 2012), so that defining proper baselines for

evaluating the rate of change in its ecosystems is compulsory. In this paper, we applied a predictive geospatial 2D model for the first time at the Mediterranean spatial scale on an ecosystem engineer seagrass species. The predictive modelling is based on beach morphodynamic features to define the reference conditions for the upper limit (i.e., the landward continuous front of the meadow) of seagrass meadows. Seagrass meadows are key coastal habitats and are used in monitoring plans as bioindicators of environmental health, thanks to their sensitivity to human-induced pressures (Pergent-Martini et al., 2005; Montefalcone, 2009; Boudouresque et al., 2012). In particular, the meadow upper limit is commonly used as an indicator of meadow health, being directly influenced by pressures coming from the coast (Pergent et al., 2005; Montefalcone, 2009; Boudouresque et al., 2012). Although seagrass meadows may be naturally fragmented by waves, currents, and colonization processes into patches of different size and form (Pace et al., 2017), wide-scale fragmentation of the meadow in correspondence of the upper limit has been shown to be a direct effect of high levels of coastal anthropization (Montefalcone et al., 2010).

*Posidonia oceanica*, the most important and abundant seagrass of the Mediterranean Sea (Boudouresque et al., 2012; Vacchi et al., 2017), forms extensive meadows that border most Mediterranean coasts (Telesca et al., 2015). Detailed maps of *P. oceanica* meadows were combined on a GIS platform with a nearshore hydrodynamic model (i.e., a model able to simulate the wave processes in the nearshore zone) to predict the theoretical natural position (i.e., the baseline) of the meadow upper limit according to the beach morphodynamics, i.e. the distinctive type of beach produced by local geomorphology and wave climate (Folkard, 2005; Jackson et al., 2005; Infantes et al., 2009). The predictive model, already tested at regional spatial scale along the Ligurian coast (NW Mediterranean Sea), showed perfect agreement between predictions and observations (Vacchi et al., 2010, 2014a, b). We thus extended the application of this predictive model at (western and central) Mediterranean spatial scale on *Posidonia oceanica* meadows along coastal areas showing different coastal morphologies and hydrodynamic characteristics, and affected by a number of

natural and/or human local disturbances, to spatially predict the reference conditions of seagrass meadows against which to evaluate the change experienced by the upper limit of these priority ecosystems. We hypothesise that predictions can discriminate between sites subjected to different levels of coastal pressures: in areas with low pressures, the position of the meadow upper limit is expected to be found within the reference condition zone for the most of its extent and with no or little signs of regression (i.e., seaward withdrawal); in areas affected by high level of pressures, the upper limits is expected to lay deeper than the reference condition zone, and the seaward distance from this reference zone can be interpreted as the linear loss of meadow extent caused by anthropogenic activities and/or natural constrains.

## Materials and Methods

### Study areas

The predictive model was applied in eight coastal areas of Spain, France, Italy, and Greece (Fig. 1), harbouring important meadows of *Posidonia oceanica*: La Azohía (Murcia, eastern Spain); El Campello (Valencia, eastern Spain); Cavalaire-sur-Mer (Provence, south-eastern France); Saleccia (northern Corsica, France); Alassio (Liguria, northern Italy); Marina di Pescia Romana (Lazio, central Italy); Mondello (Sicily, southern Italy); and Acharavi (Corfu Island, north-western Greece). Morphodynamic characteristics (i.e., geomorphologic settings and wave exposures) of the eight areas are reported in Table 1. The main human and natural pressures affecting each costal area are summarized in Table 2. The level of pressures in each study site was evaluated through the use of the pressure level index (Piazzi et al., 2015, 2018). This index was defined as the sum of eight pressures affecting coastal areas (i.e., urbanization and urban waste, ports, tourism, industrial activities, agricultural waste, anchoring, sediment load by rivers, rip currents). Each pressure was classified from 0 (no pressure) to 2 (strong pressure), according to presence and type of the

pressure, and to distance of the site from the pressure source (Table 2). The pressure level index ranges from a minimum value of 0 to 16.

#### Application of the predictive model

Application of the geospatial predictive 2D model requires the following three steps (Fig. 2): (i) characterization of the morphology and the depth of *Posidonia oceanica* meadow upper limit; (ii) definition of the near-shore morphodynamic domain (Jackson et al., 2005) and positioning of the breaking depth; and (iii) computation of the predictive equations to define the reference conditions (Vacchi et al., 2014b).

For step one, in each of the eight selected coastal areas, we combined high resolution (i.e., at the scale of 1:10000, but in El Campello, where the only available scale was 1:25000) thematic maps of *P. oceanica* meadows, resulted from single beam, multibeam and/or side scan sonar surveys (Table 4), with recent aerial imageries of the coastal zone (from Google Earth®) to define depth and morphology (continuous or fragmented) of the meadow upper limit (Fig. 3). In the selected areas, the real meadow upper limit was recognised as the front bordering the main body of the meadow (Bianchi and Peirano, 1995), where *P. oceanica* develops on either sand and other soft-bottoms or matte, the latter being an autogenic substrate consisting of interlaced remnants of roots, rhizomes and entangled sediment (Giovannetti et al., 2008). Stunted patches of *P. oceanica* established far in advance of the continuous front (Vacchi et al., 2010), and often settled on rocks, should not be considered as the real upper limit of the meadow but only as isolated outposts (Montefalcone et al., 2016).

For step two, we calculated the breaking depth ( $d_b$ ), i.e. the depth where the wave breaks (Smith, 2003), which significantly controls the landward position of the meadow upper limit (Vacchi et al., 2010) and represents an essential variable in the prediction of the meadow upper limit position (Vacchi et al., 2017). We defined the annual breaking depth and its geographical position in each



coastal area using the software MIKE21 SW, a third generation spectral wind-wave model based on unstructured meshes (Warren and Bach, 1992; Jose and Stone, 2006; Martinelli et al., 2006). The model simulates growth, decay and transformation of wind-generated waves and swells in offshore and coastal areas. The fully spectral formulation of MIKE 21 SW was used, which is based on the wave action balance equation (Hardy and Young, 1996; Komen et al., 1996). The bathymetric input of the model was derived for each study area from maps at the scale of 1:5000. Relevant local offshore wave parameters were obtained from ondametric buoys and/or high resolution hydrodynamic studies (Table 1): offshore wave height ( $H_0$ ), offshore wave length ( $L_0$ ), and offshore wave period ( $T_0$ ) (return time 1 year) (Fig. 3). According to Infantes et al. (2009) and Vacchi et al. (2014b), we employed annual offshore wave parameters (return time 1 year) instead of the simply daily average waves, as the latter could underestimate the effect of annual extreme events on the meadow. *Posidonia oceanica* is a long-lived species and the position of the lower limit of its meadows is therefore likely to be controlled more by extreme storm waves than by short period wave climate (Vacchi et al., 2010).

Finally, for step three, the predictive model elaborated by Vacchi et al. (2010, 2014a, b) was applied to the eight coastal areas. The model proposes two equations to locate the natural position of the *P. oceanica* meadow upper limit, i.e. identify a seafloor portion where the upper limit should lie due to hydrodynamics and in absence of major human pressures. The equations were derived from a linear model showing the best performance to predict the theoretical natural position of the meadow upper limit with respect to the breaking depth (Vacchi et al., 2014b). Uncertainty of model intercept and slope was estimated as 95% confidence interval of the parameters obtained by fitting the model on 500 bootstrap replicates of the original dataset. According to the 95% confidence interval of model parameters obtained by bootstrapping, two equations were identified:

- i)  $k_{\min} = 5.94 + 0.29\varepsilon$
- ii)  $k_{\max} = 17.83 + 0.41\varepsilon$

1 where  $k_{\min}$  and  $k_{\max}$  are two points along the submerged beach profile as predicted using  
 2 respectively the 2.5% and the 97.5% of the parameters obtained by the bootstrapping procedure  
 3 when modelling the difference of the breaking depth and the observed upper limit position as a  
 4 function of the surf scaling index ( $\varepsilon$ ) (Dean and Dalrymple, 2004). The former is the expected  
 5 minimum linear distance (in meters) of the upper limit from the breaking depth, the latter is the  
 6 expected maximum distance (in meters) of the upper limit from the breaking depth (see Fig. 2). The  
 7 surf scaling index is computed as  $\varepsilon = a\omega^2 / g\tan^2\beta$ , where  $a$  (breaker amplitude) =  $H_0/2$ ,  $\omega$  (incident  
 8 wave radian energy) =  $2\pi/T_0$ ,  $g$  = acceleration of gravity;  $\beta$  = slope of the beach in the surf zone,  
 9  $H_0$  = offshore wave height;  $T_0$  = offshore wave period. Meadow upper limit is found very close to  
 10 the breaking depth in those sites characterized by lower  $\varepsilon$  values, whereas higher  $\varepsilon$  values  
 11 corresponded to larger distances (Vacchi et al., 2014b).

12 The spatially modelled reference conditions of the meadow upper limits, defined as the portions of  
 13 the seafloor between the seaward ( $k_{\max}$ ) and the landward ( $k_{\min}$ ) boundaries computed by the model,  
 14 were then positioned on the detailed thematic cartographies of *P. oceanica* meadows in a  
 15 Geographical Information System (GIS) environment (Fig. 3). These portions were obtained with  
 16 the buffer geo-processing tool available in ArcGis 10.3 software.

17 To evaluate the state of health of the meadow upper limit, three metrics have been used: the mean  
 18 regressed distance, the proportion of regression, and the degree of habitat fragmentation. In each  
 19 study area the mean regressed distance (i.e., the mean extent of the seaward withdrawal) of the  
 20 meadow upper limit was computed on maps after running the model, averaging ten replicated  
 21 measures (uniformly spaced along the upper limit) of the distance (in meter) between the position of  
 22 the  $k_{\max}$  and the position of the observed upper limit. The proportion of the meadow upper limit  
 23 showing regression (in %) was computed rating the total length of the healthy limit with the length  
 24 of the limit located seaward from the reference condition zones (i.e., regressed). Inspiring to the  
 25 approach of Montefalcone et al. (2010), the degree of habitat fragmentation has been computed as

the percentage of meadow discontinuities in correspondence of its upper limit directly on maps. With the ArcGis drawing tool we contoured with a polyline the whole extent of the observed meadow upper limit on each map, and then we measured (in meters) the total length of the polyline containing *P. oceanica* (P) and the total length of the polyline not containing *P. oceanica*, i.e. laying either on dead matte or on other soft-bottoms (O). We used the following formula to compute the degree of habitat fragmentation:  $\text{habitat fragmentation} = (O/O+P) \times 100$ . Being computed directly on maps, the habitat fragmentation is an independent measure of the meadow health condition with respect to the other two metrics that derived from the application of the predictive modelling. We thus tested relationships among these three metrics using linear regressions on a total of 8 observations. Linear regressions were also used to test relationships between the pressure level index and the three metrics of the meadow state of health.

## Results

Variability of the breaking depth ( $d_b$ ) among study areas is mainly influenced by differences in wave exposure and seafloor morphology (Table 5). Shallower breaking depth values were found in Mondello, whilst the deeper in Saleccia. All the beaches showed a highly dissipative morphodynamic domain, with the surf scaling index  $>100$ . The average values of  $k_{\min}$  ranged from  $50 \pm 11$  m in Cavalaire-sur-Mer to  $500 \pm 379$  m in Acharavi. The average values of  $k_{\max}$  ranged from  $79 \pm 19$  m in Cavalaire-sur-Mer to  $716 \pm 536$  m in Acharavi.

Significant relationships were found among the three metrics adopted to evaluate the meadow state of health, i.e. the mean regressed distance, the proportion of regression and the degree of habitat fragmentation (Fig. 4). The three metrics were also spatially correlated to the main human and natural pressures affecting each costal area, and their correlations with the pressure level index were significant (Fig. 4). In coastal areas with the lowest values of the index, the meadow upper limit showed better condition than in highly developed areas (Table 2 and Table 3).

1 From the maps of *Posidonia oceanica* meadows, all the upper limits appeared fragmented at the  
 2 scale of analysis, and plotting the respective predicted reference condition zones (the seafloor  
 3 region between  $k_{\min}$  and  $k_{\max}$ ) their regression resulted obvious (Fig. 5, Fig. 6, Table 3). In Acharavi,  
 4 where the lowest value of the pressure level index has been obtained, the upper limit of the  
 5 *P. oceanica* meadow laid mostly (82.3%) within the reference condition zone and appeared little  
 6 fragmented and with a short extent of seaward withdrawal. In Alassio, Mondello, Cavalaire-sur-  
 7 Mer, Marina di Pescia Romana, and Saleccia the meadow upper limits laid only partially within the  
 8 predicted reference zone and the pressure level index displayed intermediate values. In Alassio the  
 9 meadow upper limit was located at a mean distance of 10 m seaward from the lower boundary of  
 10 the reference conditions zone, and showed highest degrees of fragmentation and regression mainly  
 11 in its western sector. In Mondello, half the extent of the limit (55.4%) laid within the reference  
 12 zone, but the wide sandy channel in the southern portion of the meadow resulting from rip currents  
 13 implied a mean regressed distance of 87 m. In Cavalaire-sur-Mer the upper limit appeared highly  
 14 fragmented throughout the whole sector investigated and remained within the reference condition  
 15 zone for only 38.9%. In Marina di Pescia Romana meadow the upper limit was located at a mean  
 16 distance of 40 m seaward from the reference zone, with the eastern sector being the most regressed.  
 17 In Saleccia, only 36.1% of the upper limit laid inside the reference condition zone but was highly  
 18 fragmented; the meadow was interrupted by a large natural sandy channel (an erosive structure  
 19 related to rip currents), mean regressed distance being 100 m. In La Azohía and El Campello, which  
 20 displayed the highest values of the pressure level index, the upper limits were almost entirely  
 21 located seaward from the reference zone (87.4% and 98.9%, respectively) and appeared highly  
 22 fragmented. In La Azohía, the regression of the upper limit was especially obvious in the central  
 23 and eastern sectors of the meadow, with a mean regressed distance of 126 m with respect to the  $k_{\max}$   
 24 value. A mean regressed distance of 133 m was also evidenced in El Campello, notwithstanding the  
 25 comparatively lower value of habitat fragmentation with respect to La Azohía.

## Discussion

The natural position of the *Posidonia oceanica* meadow upper limit can be predicted on the basis of physical parameters (Vacchi et al., 2010, 2014b, 2017). The geospatial 2D predictive model formerly employed to locate the reference condition of the meadow upper limits at regional spatial scale in Liguria, NW Mediterranean (Vacchi et al., 2014b; Burgos et al., 2017), was here exported and applied at the Mediterranean spatial scale on meadows under different disturbance regime, and showed effective to define proper baselines for assessing changes experienced by seagrass. When the model is applied on coastal areas affected by low levels of human and natural pressures, the position of the meadow upper limits is expected to be found within the reference condition zone and can be defined as the baseline to evaluate future change. In areas affected by strong human pressures, or under the influence of natural constrains (such as river inputs and rip currents), the meadow upper limit is expected to exhibit unhealthy conditions, appearing fragmented on maps and laying deeper than the reference (i.e., deeper than  $k_{\max}$ ). Thus, the linear loss of meadow extent seaward can thus be informative of the regression experienced by the meadow in time (Vacchi et al., 2014b).

Our study evidenced the regression of the meadow upper limit in all the localities investigated, with the least values in Acharavi and the greatest in El Campello, thus confirming the already reported wide decline of *P. oceanica* meadows in the Mediterranean Sea (Boudouresque et al., 2009; Marbà et al., 2014; Holon et al., 2015; Telesca et al., 2015; Burgos et al., 2017). This pattern is due to environmental alterations and physical damages and is mainly the result of the synergic effect of local and global impacts (Pergent et al., 2012; Giakoumi et al., 2015). Hydrodynamics, substrate typology and extreme climatic events, along with local human disturbances (e.g., beach nourishments, water turbidity, pollution, and anchoring) are all factors that could affect the condition of the meadow upper limits.

1 The comparatively healthier condition found in the meadow of Acharavi is consistent with the low  
 2 level of coastal pressures (Malltezi et al., 2010; Prevenios et al., 2017). The higher values of all the  
 3 three metrics found in Saleccia, another area little impacted by coastal urbanization, were likely due  
 4 to natural factors, such as the input by the adjacent Liscu River and the presence of strong rip  
 5 currents (Bonacorsi et al., 2013). Both factors hamper the development of *P. oceanica* meadows,  
 6 because of decreased water salinity and creation of erosive structures (often called ‘return rivers’),  
 7 respectively (Ben Alaya, 1972; Boudouresque et al., 2012). In the remaining meadows from France,  
 8 Spain, and Italy, the upper limits showed regressed and fragmented, in coincidence with the intense  
 9 local anthropogenic coastal pressures. In Alassio and Mondello, for instance, the healthy portions of  
 10 the meadow upper limits were slightly larger than the unhealthy ones: both meadows develop along  
 11 highly touristic coastal areas but are comparatively far from industrial and large urban centres  
 12 (Calvo et al., 1993; Montefalcone et al., 2009). On the contrary, the meadows of Cavalaire-sur-Mer  
 13 and Marina di Pescia Romana had greater proportions of unhealthy than healthy upper limits. In  
 14 Cavalaire-sur-Mer, the fragmented and regressed upper limit of the meadow was likely to be due to  
 15 the influence of the nearby marina and the consequent intense mooring pressure of yachting  
 16 activities, notwithstanding the occurrence of an authorized anchorage zone (Andromède  
 17 Océanologie and Egis Eau, 2011). In Marina di Pescia Romana, the occurrence of an unhealthy  
 18 upper limit only in the eastern sector of the meadow may be linked to the presence of a powerhouse  
 19 that discharges waste waters into the sea directly over the meadow (Ardizzone et al., 2006). In La  
 20 Azohía, waste waters coming from the numerous greenhouses located on land at a short distance  
 21 from the coastline might be the cause of the highly fragmented and regressed upper limit. In El  
 22 Campello, the meadow upper limit was almost completely regressed, being located close to the city  
 23 of Alicante and was under the direct influence of its numerous human activities. Unhealthy  
 24 conditions of these two meadows are consistent with the huge decline described for most seagrass  
 25 meadows of Spain between 1967 and 1992 (Duarte, 1995; Marbà et al., 1996, 2002; Marbà, 2009).

The three metrics used to evaluate the state of health of the meadow upper limits effectively discriminated coastal areas according to their level of pressures and showed consistent results in all the meadows investigated. Habitat fragmentation is a metric strictly dependent by the scale of the maps, in particular by the spatial resolution and the extent (Wu, 2004). Except from El Campello, our maps displayed the same extent but showed different resolutions due to different detail in the original map digitalization: results of habitat fragmentation might be influenced by lower resolution in the least detailed maps.

Human pressures along the Mediterranean coasts are expected to dramatically increase in the next decades (Micheli et al., 2013); the consequent increase of water eutrophication, together with sea-level rise due to global warming, will further amplify seagrass decline if no specific management strategies are undertaken (Diaz-Almela et al., 2007; Marbà and Duarte, 2010; Gacía et al., 2012, 2013). The effect of the 20th century sea level rise acceleration in the Mediterranean (e.g., Vacchi et al., 2016) on the shallow portion of seagrass meadows is presently not fully understood. The significant increase of the rising rates in the next century (Church et al., 2013) is likely to affect the efficacy and accuracy of our predictions and should thus be taken into account in any future tuning of the model.

*Posidonia oceanica* might lose 75% of its suitable habitat by 2050, risking functional extinction by 2100 due to direct and indirect effects of climate change (Jorda et al., 2012; Chefaoui et al., 2018). On the other hand, along the Mediterranean French coast, upper limits of *P. oceanica* meadows showed mostly stable during the last 85 years, despite coastal development and increase of impacting human activities (Holon et al., 2015). The maintenance (or restoration) of the “good environmental status” by 2020 imposed by the Marine Strategy Framework Directive urgently asks for the identification of the reference conditions against which the current state of our ecosystems must be compared. Availability of such a predictive tool to define baselines when other approaches (i.e., historical data and pristine areas) might be absent or inadequate (Bonacorsi et al., 2013), is



essential in the frame of an integrated management plan of seagrass meadows at the Mediterranean spatial scale. Also, to effectively slow down and possibly reverse this decline, targeted local conservation measures must be identified to reduce human pressure and mitigate effects of global change (Orth et al., 2006), as well as specific interventions of transplantation in degraded meadows (Pirotta et al., 2015). Our predictive model might help identifying potential areas where conservation and management actions must be concentrated. Identification of suitable portions of the bottom where seagrass can be effectively restored is another potential application of our model, provided that the pressures that caused regression are removed.

Differently from other mechanistic models already developed to predict distribution of seagrass meadows (Peirano and Bianchi, 1997; Detenbeck and Rego, 2015 and references therein), our predictive model has a relatively easy formulation being mainly dependent on a single physical parameter (i.e., the breaking depth). The accurate positioning of  $k_{\min}$  and  $k_{\max}$  parameters is strongly influenced by the occurrence of artificial hard structures along the coast, because they modify wave motion altering the local hydrodynamics. Nevertheless, the model may be applied where the coastline has been largely modified, provided that the assessment of the original terrain morphology remains possible (Burgos et al., 2017). Clearly there is also a need of detailed maps of *P. oceanica* meadows (at least of their shallow portions) and detailed bathymetries upon which to build the model. The scale used on maps is another important aspect to define the reference condition zone: maps with a scale  $\geq 1:25000$  are mandatory to obtain reliable results and improve interpretation. This is the reason why the coastal areas we selected to apply the model are all located in the western and the central Mediterranean Sea, because of the little availability of suitable data on seagrass meadows in the southern and the eastern regions of the Mediterranean Sea. Future application of our methodology in other areas of the Mediterranean Sea would include beaches with intermediate and reflective morphodynamic domains. Moreover, exporting the model in other geomorphologic,



climatic and hydrodynamic contexts may lead to important results in the assessment of long-time changes experienced by seagrass ecosystems due to global and local human impacts.

As already underlined by previous studies (Vacchi et al., 2010, 2014b), our model can effectively predict the natural landward distribution of meadows settled on sand or other soft bottoms and on *matte*. *P. oceanica* is also able to grow in small and discontinuous stands landward from the breaking depth and far in advance from the continuous meadow front. This may especially occur on rocks, where the rhizomes of *P. oceanica* are able to anchor strongly (Montefalcone et al., 2016), thus allowing the plant to withstand the intense hydrodynamics that characterize the surf zone (Vacchi et al., 2017). These shallow patches are of great interest, and should therefore be monitored, as they could coalesce to originate a new continuous upper limit of the meadow under the future scenarios of sea level rise (Pergent et al., 2014).

The canopy of dense meadows is known to attenuate waves (Peterson et al., 2004; Pace et al., 2017), which is likely to cause a landward shift of the breaking depth. We had no measurements of wave attenuation provided by the canopies, and our model took into account off shore waves. Thus, the observed regression of the meadow upper limit may be even greater than what we have been able to measure. In this sense, our measures are likely to be very conservative. As in any case of model application, field surveys, possibly with underwater inspections, must be carried out to sea-truth and validate the results of the model.

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# 1    **Caption to figures and table headings**

2    Figure 1. Location of the eight study areas in the western and central basins of the Mediterranean  
 3    Sea. La Azohía (Murcia, Spain), El Campello (Valencia, Spain), Cavalaire-sur-Mer (Provence,  
 4    France), Saleccia (Corsica, France), Alassio (Liguria, Italy), Marina di Pescia Romana (Lazio,  
 5    Italy), Mondello (Sicily, Italy), Acharavi (Corfu Island, Greece). Grid datum: D\_WGS\_1984 UTM  
 6    zone 32 Northern Hemisphere.

7  
 8    Figure 2. A schematic representation of the steps required for the application of the geospatial  
 9    model to predict the position of *Posidonia oceanica* meadow upper limit under natural conditions,  
 10    viewed in vertical section: a) positioning of the present upper limit (dotted line), based on field data  
 11    and/or available cartographies, and positioning of the breaking depth ( $d_b$ , black dot), based on  
 12    nearshore hydrodynamics; b) positioning of  $k_{min}$  and  $k_{max}$ , where the natural upper limit is expected  
 13    to lie, as computed through the predictive equations described in the text.

14  
 15    Figure 3. A planimetric rendering in GIS environment of the procedure to predict the position of the  
 16    *Posidonia oceanica* meadow upper limit under natural conditions, as illustrated in Figure 2. The  
 17    orange portion of the seafloor represents the reference condition zone for meadow upper limit, as  
 18    defined by  $k_{min}$  and  $k_{max}$  distances from the breaking depth.

19  
 20    Figure 4. Relationships between: (a) the regressed proportion and the mean regressed distance of  
 21    the meadow upper limit; (b) the fragmentation and the mean regressed distance; (c) the  
 22    fragmentation and the regressed proportion; (d) the pressure level index and the proportion of  
 23    regression; (e) the pressure level index and the mean regressed distance; and (f) the pressure level  
 24    index and the degree of habitat fragmentation. AZ = La Azohía; EC = El Campello;

CM = Cavalaire-sur-Mer; SA = Saleccia; AL = Alassio; MP = Marina di Pescia Romana;  
MO = Mondello; AC = Acharavi.

Figure 5. Detailed cartographies of *Posidonia oceanica* meadows in Spain (La Azohía, El Campello) and France (Cavalaire-sur-Mer, Saleccia), with superimposed the reference condition zones, which boundaries are defined by  $k_{\min}$  (yellow line) and  $k_{\max}$  (red line). The blue arrow at Saleccia indicates the main rip current path. Grid datum: D\_WGS\_1984 UTM zone 32 Northern Hemisphere.

Figure 6. Detailed cartographies of *Posidonia oceanica* meadows in Italy (Alassio, Marina di Pescia Romana, Mondello) and Greece (Acharavi), with superimposed the reference condition zones, which boundaries are defined by  $k_{\min}$  (yellow line) and  $k_{\max}$  (red line). The blue arrow at Mondello indicates the main rip current path. Grid datum: D\_WGS\_1984 UTM zone 32 Northern Hemisphere.

Table 1. Summary of the morphodynamic characteristics of the eight study areas and local off-shore wave parameters (return time 1 year).  $H_0$  is the offshore wave height,  $T_0$  is the offshore wave period and  $L_0$  is the offshore wave length. Refer to Table 3 for bibliographic sources used in each area.

Table 2. Main natural and anthropogenic pressures affecting each costal area together with their relative score (from 0 to 2) and the value of the pressure level index.

Table 3. Mean values ( $\pm$  s.d.) of the depth of the meadow upper limits and the three metrics used to evaluate the healthy condition of the limit in each costal area: mean ( $\pm$  s.e.) regressed distance from  $k_{\max}$  value (in meters), regressed proportion (%), and degree of habitat fragmentation (%).

1

2 Table 4. Survey methods and scale of the thematic cartographies of *Posidonia oceanica* meadows  
3 used to characterize the morphology of the meadow upper limits in the eight study areas. Data on  
4 meadows characteristics, as well as on morphodynamics (see Table 1), were obtained by the  
5 following bibliographic sources: (1) [www.ifremer.fr/medar](http://www.ifremer.fr/medar); (2) Fernández-Torquemada et al.  
6 (2008); (3) Andromède Océanologie and Egis Eau (2011); (4) Bonacorsi (2012); (5) Diviacco and  
7 Coppo (2007); (6) Diviacco et al. (2001); (7) [www.mareografico.it](http://www.mareografico.it); (8) Papathanassiou and Zenetos  
8 (2005).

9

10 Table 5. Mean values ( $\pm$  s.d.) of the surf scaling index ( $\varepsilon$ ), mean depth ( $\pm$  s.d.) of the breaking depth  
11 ( $d_b$ ), and mean values ( $\pm$  s.d.) of the  $k_{\min}$  and the  $k_{\max}$  (expressed as the minimum and the maximum  
12 distance from the breaking depth, respectively) for each study area.



1 Table 1.

Locality	Beach orientation	Beach length (km)	Dominant wave	Beach slope (%)	H <sub>0</sub> (m)	T <sub>0</sub> (s)	L <sub>0</sub> (m)
La Azohía (Murcia, Spain)	NW-SE	5	SO	1.9	4.2	7.5	87.8
El Campello (Valencia, Spain)	NE-SW	6.5	SE-NW	1.5	5.0	9.0	126.7
Cavalaire-sur-Mer (Provence, France)	NE-SW	3	S	3.2	3.5	7.0	76.4
Saleccia (Corsica, France)	E-O	1	NE	3.8	5.5	9.1	129.2
Alassio (Liguria, Italy)	NE-SW	2	SE	3.0	2.6	5.8	52.4
Marina di Pescia Romana (Lazio, Italy)	NW-SE	10	SE	1.5	5.0	8.7	117.3
Mondello (Sicily, Italy)	NW-SE	2	E	2.0	2.5	9.0	126.4
Acharavi (Corfu Island, Greece)	NE-SW	3	N	1.0	4.1	7.7	76.3

2

3

1 Table 2.

Locality	Urbanization and urban waste	Industrial activity	Ports	Tourism	Sediment load	Agricultural waste	Anchoring	Rip currents	Total
La Azohía (Murcia, Spain)	1	1	1	2		2	1		8
El Campello (Valencia, Spain)	2	1	2	2			2		9
Cavalaire-sur-Mer (Provence, France)	2		1	2			2		7
Saleccia (Corsica, France)				1	2		1	2	6
Alassio (Liguria, Italy)	1		1	2			1		5
Marina di Pescia Romana (Lazio, Italy)	1	2		1		2			6
Mondello (Sicily, Italy)	1		1	2				2	6
Acharavi (Corfu Island, Greece)	1			1		1			3

2

1 Table 3.

Locality	Depth (m)	Regressed distance (m)	Regressed proportion (%)	Habitat fragmentation (%)
La Azohía (Murcia, Spain)	9.5±0.7	126±17	87.4	74.9
El Campello (Valencia, Spain)	11±4.0	133±27.1	98.9	67.2
Cavalaire-sur-Mer (Provence, France)	6.7±2.3	29±7.2	61.1	58.2
Saleccia (Corsica, France)	10±7.1	100±45.3	63.9	69.3
Alassio (Liguria, Italy)	7.5±0.7	10±4.3	40.9	33.2
Marina di Pescia Romana (Lazio, Italy)	8.5±2.1	40±12.7	63.1	47.9
Mondello (Sicily, Italy)	5±1.2	87±59.3	44.6	58.6
Acharavi (Corfu Island, Greece)	8.8±2.0	11±4.5	17.7	39.3

2

1 Table 4.

Locality	Survey method	Map scale	Data sources
La Azohía (Murcia, Spain)	multibeam, aerial imageries	1:10000	1, 2
El Campello (Valencia, Spain)	multibeam, aerial imageries	1:25000	1, 2
Cavalaire-sur-Mer (Provence, France)	multibeam, aerial imageries	1:10000	1, 3
Saleccia (Corsica, France)	multibeam, aerial imageries	1:10000	1, 4
Alassio (Liguria, Italy)	side scan sonar, multibeam, aerial imageries	1:10000	5
Marina di Pescia Romana (Lazio, Italy)	multibeam, aerial imageries	1:10000	6
Mondello (Sicily, Italy)	multibeam, aerial imageries	1:10000	7
Acharavi (Corfu Island, Greece)	single beam, aerial imageries	1:10000	8

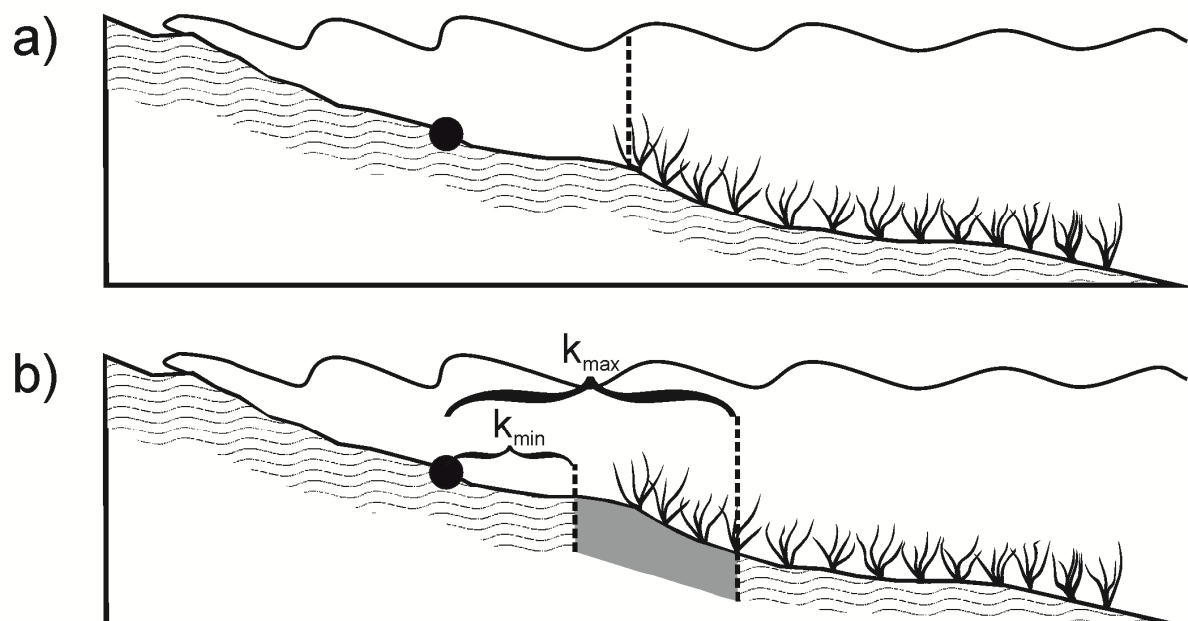
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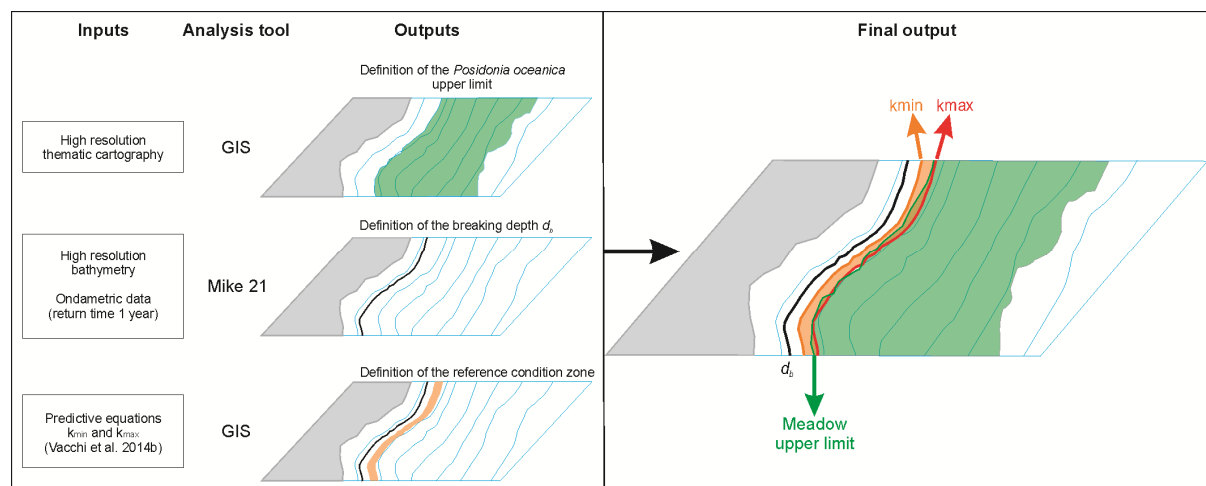
1 Table 5.

Locality	$\varepsilon$	$d_b$ (m)	$k_{min}$ (m)	$k_{max}$ (m)
La Azohía (Murcia, Spain)	632±542	5.7±0.5	190±158	277±222
El Campello (Valencia, Spain)	803±337	6.9±0.2	241±98	331±122
Cavalaire-sur-Mer (Provence, France)	152±41	4.3±0.1	50±11	79±19
Saleccia (Corsica, France)	262±228	7.0±0.6	82±66	125±93
Alassio (Liguria, Italy)	330±28	3.8±0.2	104±9	153±8
Marina di Pescia Romana (Lazio, Italy)	785±268	6.9±0.1	241±68	340±110
Mondello (Sicily, Italy)	237±32	3.2±0.2	75±9	115±13
Acharavi (Corfu Island, Greece)	1084±238	6.1±0.4	500±379	716±536

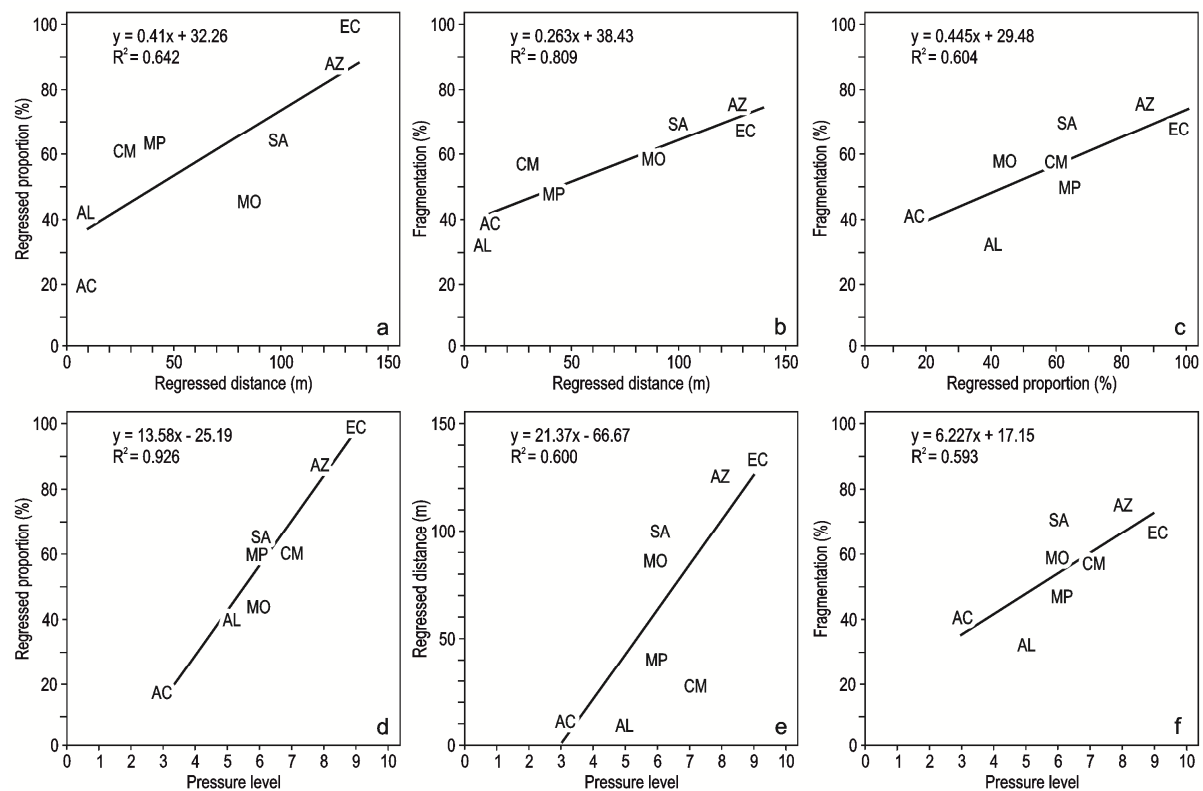
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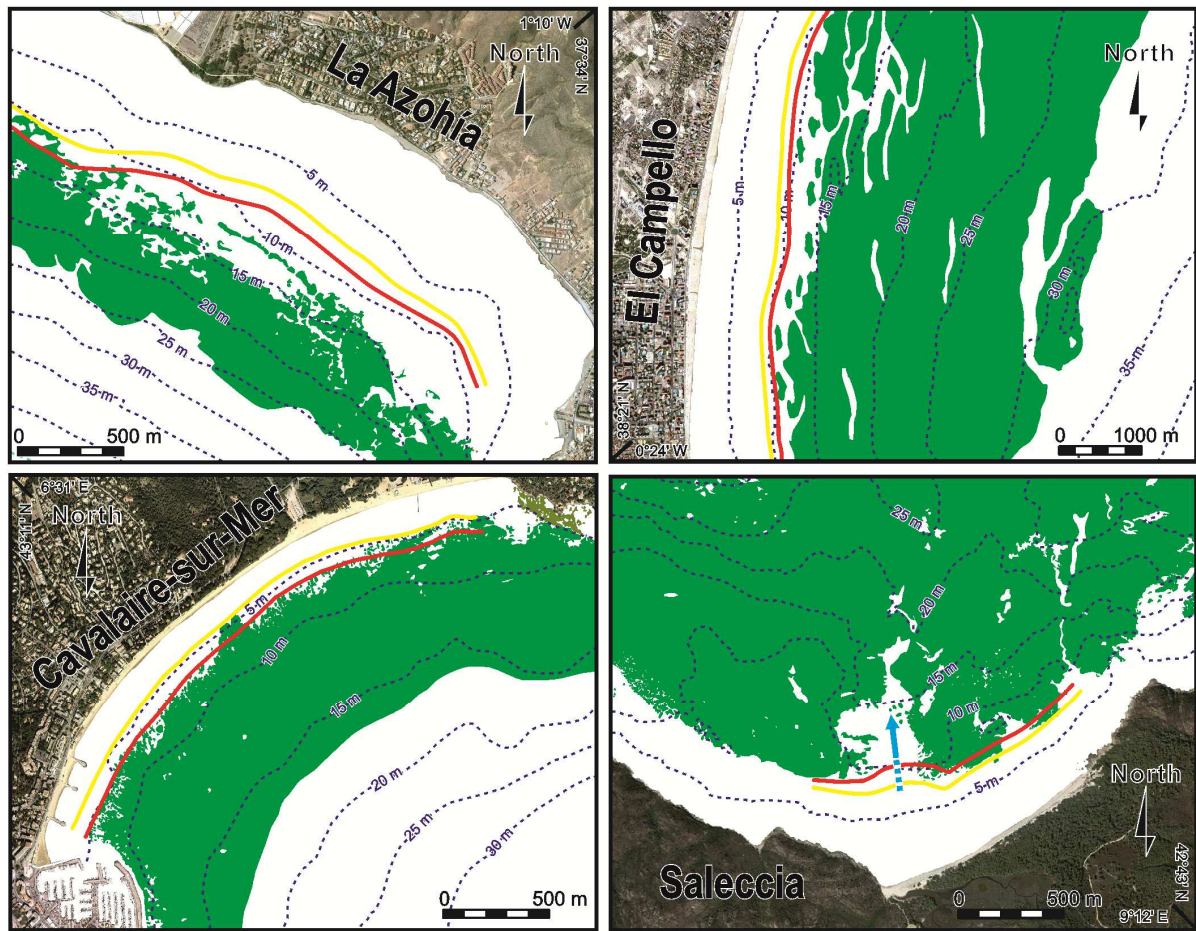


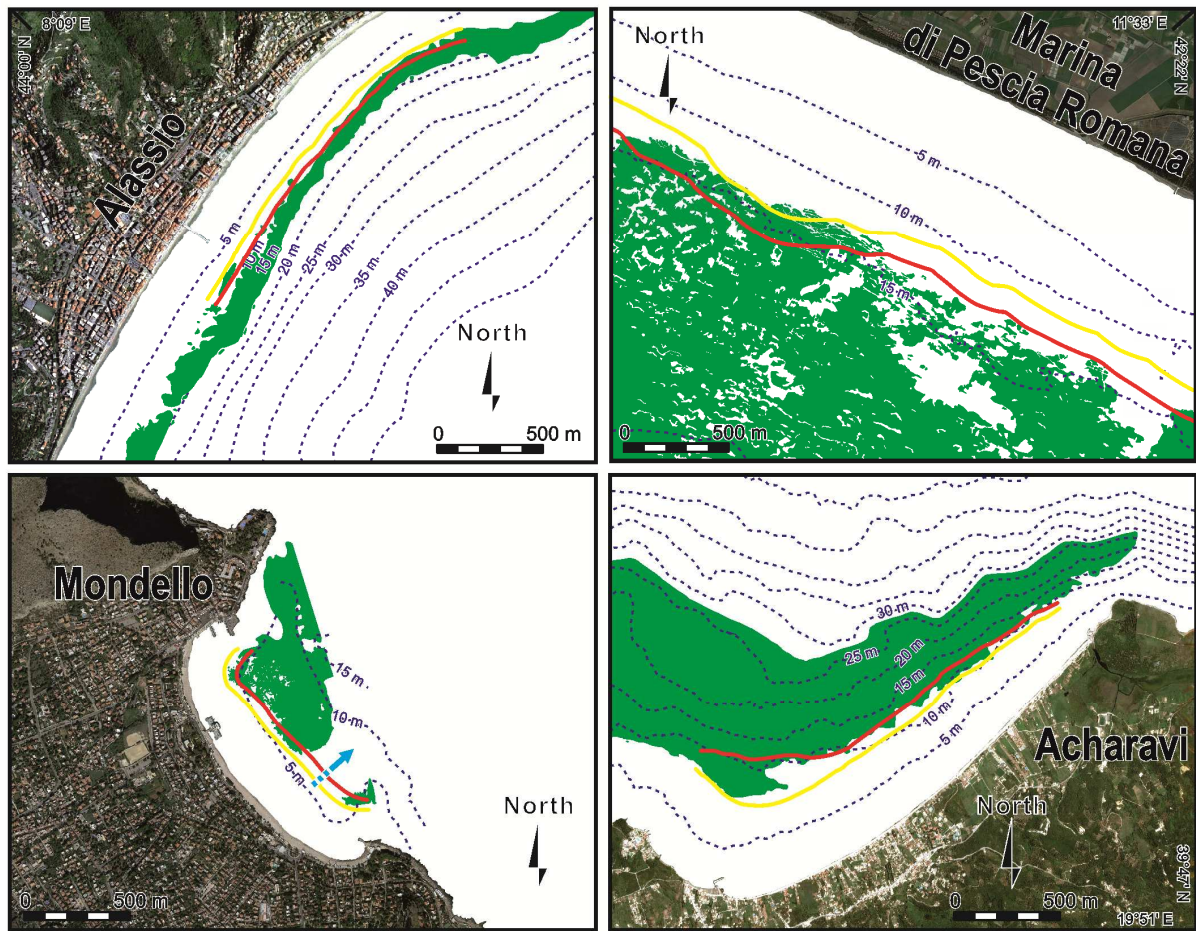












- Reference conditions are needed to measure long-term change in marine ecosystems
- We modelled the upper (landward) limit of seagrass meadows at Mediterranean scale
- All meadow upper limits appeared regressed and fragmented due to local disturbances
- Modelling represents an effective tool for evaluating seagrass meadow conditions